Random exploration of the Kluyveromyces lactis genome and comparison with that of Saccharomyces cerevisiae

Odile Ozier-Kalogeropoulos*, Alain Malpertuy, Jeanne Boyer, Fredj Tekaia and Bernard Dujon

Unité de Génétique Moléculaire des Levures (URA 1300, CNRS and UFR 927, Université Pierre et Marie Curie, Paris, France) Institut Pasteur, 25 rue du Dr Roux, F-75724 Paris Cedex 15, France

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ABSTRACT

The genome of the yeast Kluyveromyces lactis was explored by sequencing 588 short tags from two random genomic libraries (random sequenced tags, or RSTs), representing altogether 1.3% of the K.lactis genome. After systematic translation of the RSTs in all six possible frames and comparison with the complete set of proteins predicted from the Saccharomyces cerevisiae genomic sequence using an internally standardized threshold, 296 K.lactis genes were identified of which 292 are new. This corresponds to ∼**5% of the estimated genes of this organism and triples the total number of identified genes in this species. Of the novel K.lactis genes, 169 (58%) are homologous to S.cerevisiae genes of known or assigned functions, allowing tentative functional assignment, but 59 others (20%) correspond to S.cerevisiae genes of unknown function and previously without homolog among all completely sequenced genomes. Interestingly, a lower degree of sequence conservation is observed in this latter class. In nearly all instances in which the novel K.lactis genes have homologs in different species, sequence conservation is higher with their S.cerevisiae counterparts than with any of the other organisms examined. Conserved gene order relationships (synteny) between the two yeast species are also observed for half of the cases studied.**

INTRODUCTION

Comparative genomics is a rapidly growing field of investigation (1,2). Initially limited to the analysis of ESTs (3–6), or to the comparison of chromosomal regions (7), it can now be extended to complete genomes, thanks to the recent release of several microbial genomic sequences (8–21). If such comparisons are highly informative to identify or classify the many novel genes issued from large systematic sequencing programs, their results are of more limited significance to describe the mechanisms of molecular evolution because, with the sole exception of the two

Mycoplasma species (22), the presently sequenced microorganisms are only distantly related to one another. Hence the fact that in nearly all organisms sequenced so far, sizeable fractions of the genes remain without homolog. Many such genes, even in the case of well studied organisms such as *Escherichia coli* (14), *Bacillus subtilis* (18) or the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (23), have not been functionally characterized. It is therefore impossible to distinguish between the possible existence of functional orthologs whose sequence may have diverged beyond recognition, and genes that may be truly specific to a given phylogenetic group of organisms.

Of the organisms whose genomes have been completely sequenced, *S.cerevisiae* so far stands alone among the Eucaryotes (23). Comparisons of yeast sequences with the numerous human ESTs (24) or with the partial genomic sequence of *Caenorhabditis elegans* (25) confirm the phylogenetic relationship of *S.cerevisiae* with the animal kingdom, but evolutionary distances are too large to help us describe mechanisms of molecular evolution within Eucaryotes. For this goal, comparison of *S.cerevisiae* with closely related yeasts is the most appropriate approach. The yeasts represent a large and diverse taxonomic group and, at present, a significant number of sequences are available only for two species, the pathogenic yeast *Candida albicans* (http://candida. stanford.edu) and the fission yeast *Schizosaccharomyces pombe* (ftp://ftp.sanger.ac.uk/pub/PomBase/). In fact, although the fission yeast belongs to the yeast phylum, this species is very distantly related to *S.cerevisiae* and sequence comparisons give results not very different from the comparison of *S.cerevisiae* with *C.elegans*.

Using a conservative threshold, ∼36% of the protein-coding genes predicted from the genome of *S.cerevisiae* remain without structural homologs in other organisms. Among these, there exist genes that have been functionally characterized in yeast (11% of total), genes whose function can be tentatively assigned from their structural homologs in yeast itself (3% of total), and genes (22% of the total) that remain of unpredictable function because none of their homologs in yeast is functionally characterized or because they have no structural homolog in yeast (26). To help us understand the origin and nature of the latter genes (called 'orphans'; 27), we decided to explore the genome of a yeast

*To whom correspondence should be addressed. Tel: +33 1 40 61 30 59; Fax: +33 1 40 61 34 56; Email: odozier@pasteur.fr

species closely related to *S.cerevisiae* (28). *Kluyveromyces lactis* was selected because, from the limited number of genes previously characterized in this species (82 protein-coding genes were found in public sequence databases at the start of this work; 29), it appeared a limited sequence divergence from *S.cerevisiae* (mean amino acid identity, 83%; standard deviation, 19%), and because the two genomes share a number of similarities such as the rare occurrence of introns, comparable gene density, and short intergenic regions. In addition, and despite the fact that *K.lactis* has only six chromosomes, its genome size and total gene number are similar to that of *S.cerevisiae*, and even the centromeres are of comparable structure (30). Like *S.cerevisiae*, *K.lactis* is also a microorganism of biotechnological interest (31,32) that has been studied for many years, notably by Louis Pasteur (33).

Most of the *K.lactis* genes characterized so far were isolated on the basis of their structural or functional similarity with *S.cerevisiae*. In order to allow a significant comparison between the two genomes, and at the same time to identify possible homologs to *S.cerevisiae* orphans (none exists in the limited list of *K.lactis* genes available), we therefore decided to explore the genome of *K.lactis* using a totally random approach by sequencing inserts from a genomic library. A similar approach has been adopted on a limited scale for the filamentous fungus *Ashbya gossypii* (34), and for *Drosophila melanogaster* (35), although in the latter case no genomic sequence of closely related organisms is available yet. This approach, applied to only 1.3% of the *K.lactis* genome, proved not only useful for the rapid identification of many novel *K.lactis* genes (5% of total), but also informative for the identification of homologs to *S.cerevisiae* orphan genes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Construction of the *K.lactis* **random genomic library**

DNA preparation. Cells from a 500 ml YPglu (2% glucose, 1% BNA *preparation*. Cens from a 500 fm $\overline{11}$ grammers of *K.lactis* strain CBS2359 grown overnight at 30 \degree C were harvested by centrifugation, rinsed in water, resuspended in 50 ml of spheroplasting buffer [1 M Sorbitol, 50 mM Na–K phosphate buffer pH 7.5, 25 mM EDTA, 1% (v/v) β-mercaptoethanol] containing 60 mg of Zymolyase (20 000 U; Seikagaku Kogyo), and incubated for 1 h at 30° C with gentle agitation. Spheroplasts were collected by low speed centrifugation (3000 *g* for 10 min) and resuspended in 20 ml of lysis buffer [TE buffer pH 8.0 with 1% (w/v) sodium dodecyl sulfate] containing 2 mg of Proteinase K (Boehringer Mann-
heim), and incubated for 2 h at 50° C, followed by 30 min at 65° C. Two phenol–chloroform extractions were performed and the aqueous phase was precipitated by addition of 0.1 vol of 3 M NaCl and 0.8 vol of isopropanol. Precipitated DNA was taken out of the solution with a sterile loop, washed with a 70% (v/v) ethanol solution, air-dried and redissolved in 1 ml of TE buffer pH 8.0. Eight microliters of a 10 mg/ml solution of RNase A (Boehringer Eight inicronters of a To flighth solution of Kryase A (Boeninger Mannheim) were added, and the solution was incubated for 30 min at 37°C, followed by a second ethanol–0.3 M NaCl precipitation. The DNA was washed again with a 70% ethanol solution, air-dried and finally dissolved in 500 µl of TE (pH 8.0).

DNA fragmentation. Two *K.lactis* genomic libraries were constructed in parallel, a 'long-fragment' library containing 2–3 kb inserts and a 'short-fragment' library of 0.8–1.2 kb inserts. *Kluyveromyces lactis* DNA was randomly fragmented by

nebulization (DNA Nebulizer, GATC GmbH, Germany). For the long-fragment library, 100μ g of the DNA (1 μ g/ μ l solution) were added to 1.9 ml of TE pH 7.5 and the solution was nebulized for 45 s using pressurized argon (10^5 Pa) . For the short-fragment library, 50 μ g of DNA were added to 750 μ l of 80% glycerol (v/v) and 1.2 ml of TE (pH 7.5) and the solution was nebulized for 90 s under the same conditions. Each nebulized DNA solution was aliquoted into six microcentrifuge tubes, precipitated by addition of a solution of ethanol–3 M sodium acetate. Pellets were rinsed with a 70% ethanol solution, dried and redissolved in 50 µl of TE (pH 7.5). The contents of the six tubes were pooled for a second precipitation, and the recovered DNA (∼80 µg) was finally precipitation, and the recovered DNA (-500 µg) was miliary
redissolved in 20 µl TE (pH 7.5). DNA preparations were
end-filled (30 min at 15°C) using T4 DNA Polymerase (N.E. Biolabs) and the four deoxyribonucleotide triphosphates, and loaded on a preparative low-melting agarose gel. After electrophoresis, fragments corresponding in size to ∼1 kb (short-fragment library), or ∼3 kb (long-fragment library) were excised from the gels and extracted using QIAquick columns, following the recommendations of the manufacturer (Qiagen Inc.). Size-fractionated DNA was eluted in 30 µl of water.

Vector preparation and ligation. Aliquots of 10 µg of pBluescript SK+ vector were digested by *Eco*RV and dephosphorylated using Calf Intestinal Phosphatase (N.E. Biolabs) following the manufacturer's protocol. After phenol extraction and precipitation, the DNA was redissolved in 20μ of water and purified by low-melting FIVA was relassorved in 20 μt of water and partned by low-menting agarose gel electrophoresis. Linearized vector (500 ng) and *K.lactis* DNA fragments (1 μg) were ligated overnight at 16[°]C (T4 DNA ligase; N.E. Biolabs). After phenol–chloroform extraction and precipitation, the DNA was recovered in 20 µl of water. One-tenth of each ligation mix was used to transform *E.coli* DH5α cells by electroporation (36). Bacteria were plated on LB medium containing ampicillin (100 mg/ml). Each ligation mix had the potential to yield 20–30 000 primary clones with inserts (white colonies).

Sequencing strategy and sequence quality

Inserts from the large-fragment library were sequenced from both ends, using direct and reverse end-labelled primers, on doublestranded DNA prepared with QIAGEN columns (37). Inserts from the short-fragment library were sequenced from one end, using direct end-labelled primer and single-stranded PCR-amplified DNA, prepared using magnetic beads with covalently coupled streptavidin (38), Dynabeads M-280 (Dynal AS, Norway). The capture of the biotin-labelled single-stranded DNA was automated on a Biomek 2000 workstation (Beckman), coupled with a magnetic robot (Polyseq, PolyGen GMBH). Sequencing reactions were analyzed on automatic fluorescent DNA sequencers (ALF and ALFexpress, Pharmacia). To ensure high and even sequence quality for the entire set of genomic tags (designated here random sequenced tags, or RSTs), each sequencing profile was inspected on a Sparc II workstation using the Alfsplit and Ted programs of the Staden package (39) and sequences containing any base-calling ambiguity, or <100 nt were eliminated. Putative frameshifts issued from errors in our single-read sequences detected by BLASTX comparisons (see below), or by using DNA-Strider dot plot matrices (40), were corrected according to DNA–DNA alignments. The average error rate of our RSTs is 0.5% for nucleotide substitution and 0.3% for base addition/omission, as estimated from fragments of the pBluescript vector that were resequenced in a few empty clones.

Analysis of the *K.lactis* **RSTs**

Each of the 658 RSTs was first compared with all others to detect duplicates or partially overlapping sequences. Seven were found to be partially overlapping and merged into three distinct contigs. The resulting 654 RSTs were then compared with rDNA, tRNA, mitochondrial DNA and intergenic sequences of *S.cerevisiae* to identify *K.lactis* homologs. Sixty-six such sequences were found. All above comparisons were carried out using the BLASTN program (version 1.4) (41).

Each of the 588 remaining RSTs was systematically compared with a complete, non-redundant database of *S.cerevisiae* protein sequences (compiled in our laboratory and containing 6182 predicted protein products; unpublished data), using the BLASTX program (version 1.4) (41) with the PAM100 substitution matrix. This program compares all possible translation products of a nucleotide query sequence (all six frames) against a protein sequence database. In order to determine the significance of BLASTX probability scores, two sets of random sequences, identical in number and in size distribution to the actual *K.lactis* RSTs, were extracted from the *S.cerevisiae* genomic sequence using a Perl script written for this purpose (Randomseq). Sequences from these two control sets (called random extracted sequences, or RESs) were systematically compared with the complete, non-redundant database of *S.cerevisiae* protein sequences, as above. Sequence divergence was calculated from amino acid sequence alignments produced by the ALIGN program using the PAM100 substitution matrix (42,43).

Accession numbers and access to annotated sequences

The 658 sequences have been deposited in EMBL and are accessible with the accession nos AJ229366–AJ230023. Annotated sequences are accessible at the MIPS site (http://www.mips. biochem.mpg.de/mips/yeast/)

RESULTS

Analysis of RSTs from the *K.lactis* **genome**

We have rapidly explored the genome of *K.lactis* by single-pass sequencing of 658 inserts from randomly picked clones of two independent genomic libraries (Table 1). After elimination of sequences corresponding to mtDNA, rRNA or tRNA (Materials and Methods), each sequence that read longer than 100 nt, called RST (a total of 588), was systematically translated in the six possible frames and compared with: (i) a complete, non-redundant database of *S.cerevisiae* protein sequences; (ii) the predicted translation products of 13 fully sequenced microorganism genomes (8–12, 14–21) and of 81% of the *C.elegans* genome (http://www.sanger.ac.uk/Projects/C_elegans/) and (iii) all publically available protein sequences (44).

The fact that RSTs are randomly distributed with respect to *K.lactis* ORFs, and are of limited average size (267 bp) with a large range of variation (from 100 nt, our lower limit, to 579 nt), makes BLASTX probability scores [sum(*P*) values] complex to interpret. In order to select the best possible limit to distinguish the *K.lactis* RSTs having *S.cerevisiae* homolog(s) from those that do not, we devised an internal control consisting of two sets of RESs from the *S.cerevisiae* genome, each identical in number and size distribution to the actual *K.lactis* RST set. Figure 1 shows the distribution of the best *P*-value scores obtained for the two sets of

Table 1. Overall characteristics of *K.lactis* RSTs

*Only RSTs with at least 100 nt of unambiguous base-calling were retained (Materials and Methods).

**Amino acid identity: mean, 63.6%; standard deviation, 49.7%. Nucleotide identity: mean, 66.6%; standard deviation, 13.3%.

***(ref. 30).

RESs when compared with the *S.cerevisiae* complete database, together with actual results for the *K.lactis* RSTs. Best *P*-value scores range from 10^{-126} to 1 for the *K.lactis* RSTs and from 10–154 to 1 for the *S.cerevisiae* RESs. Note that each RES containing a long enough segment of a *S.cerevisiae* ORF possesses a self-score against the *S.cerevisiae* database, whereas RSTs do not, resulting in the excess of RES scores over RST scores for P -values $\lt 10^{-20}$. Examination of sequence alignments indicate that 84% of the RESs contain ORF fragments giving such self-scores, while the remaining 16% of the RESs only contain intergenic sequences or very short, unrecognizable ORF fragments. These figures are consistent with the known distribution of *S.cerevisiae* ORF sizes. If we assume (Discussion) that a similar distribution exists for the RSTs with respect to the *K.lactis* ORFs, a total of 469 RSTs should contain an ORF, and only 119 should represent intergenic sequences or short ORF fragments. Since all RESs corresponding to intergenic sequences gave best *P*-values $\geq 10^{-4}$, we consider this limit to represent non-significant matches with the *S.cerevisiae* translation products. Using the same limit for RSTs (a conservative limit because it ignores sequence divergence between the two species), we found instead that 309 *K.lactis* RSTs have at least one significant homolog among the *S.cerevisiae* genes, and the remaining 279 do not. We ruled out the possibility that the latter might represent contaminating DNA (e.g. *E.coli* or vectors) by analyzing 10 of them taken at random, and showing that they specifically hybridize with purified

Figure 1. Frequency distribution of best *P*-value scores in BLASTX comparisons of *K.lactis* RST and *S.cerevisiae* RES nucleotide sequences with all predicted *S.cerevisiae* gene product sequences. The 588 *K.lactis* RSTs (solid line), or the same number of *S.cerevisiae* RESs used as standards (dotted lines), were ranked by increasing best *P*-value scores after comparisons with the complete set of *S.cerevisiae* translation products (Materials and Methods), and the frequency distributions were calculated using logarithmic windows of 1E-0.5 and sliding steps of 1E-0.1. *x*-axis, best *P*-value scores; *y*-axis, frequency of RSTs or RES in windows relative to total. Chosen threshold for homology significance (see text) is 1E-4 (vertical dashed line).

K.lactis DNA (data not shown). By careful examination of all alignments, we have also ruled out the possibility that the 279 *K.lactis* RSTs might contain genes with weak homologies to *S.cerevisiae* that would have been eliminated by too stringent a threshold. Furthermore, no significant sequence homology was found when comparing those *K.lactis* RSTs with all intergenic sequences of *S.cerevisiae* using BLASTN.

New *K.lactis* **genes identified from their** *S.cerevisiae* **homologs**

In cases in which a single *S.cerevisiae* gene product was found to give a significant BLASTX *P*-value score (<10–4) with a *K.lactis* RST translation product, the corresponding gene was considered to be the ortholog of the *K.lactis* RST (Discussion). In cases in which several distinct *S.cerevisiae* gene products gave significant *P*-value scores with a *K.lactis* RST, we considered, arbitrarily, that a ratio >200 between the best *P*-value score and the next one was sufficient to define the ortholog. In the few cases in which this ratio was <200, protein and nucleic acid alignments were used to help us to identify the likely orthologs. In total, 297 RSTs corresponding to 284 different *K.lactis* genes fall in one of the above classes (Table 2A). Twelve other RSTs remained, representing 12 different *K.lactis* genes having two or more possible homologs in *S.cerevisiae*. In such cases, all possible homologs are listed

Figure 2. Breakdown of *K.lactis* RSTs into functional categories as defined by their *S.cerevisiae* orthologs. Functional categories are as defined in the MIPS Gazetteer (26): cellular organization and biogenesis (COB): metabolism (M): cell growth, cell division and DNA synthesis (CG); transcription (T); protein destination (PD); protein synthesis (PS); cell rescue (CR); energy (E); intracellular transport (IT); transport facilitation (TF); and signal transduction (ST). Bars represent the relative proportion (%) of each category when the complete list of functionally characterized proteins of *S.cerevisiae* is considered (Sc row), and when the subset of orthologs to the *K.lactis* RSTs is considered (Kl row). In both distributions, a single gene product can be assigned to more than one category (26). The two distributions are not significantly different, $(\chi^2 = 12.27, df = 10, P < 0.20).$

(Table 2B). Two *K.lactis* RSTs share homology with *S.cerevisiae* ORFs considered as questionable or even disregarded (YDR445c and A-A110) in the MIPS classification (http://www.mips. biochem.mpg.de/mips/yeast/). In these two cases, partially overlapping ORFs were retained as more likely candidates for actual genes (YDR444w and YAR045w, respectively). The present finding of *K.lactis* homologs suggests the opposite.

Note that among the 296 *K.lactis* genes identified here, only four were previously described (Table 2), and 292 are novel. This is 3.5 times more than the total number of *K.lactis* genes previously identified at the molecular level (29).

Functional classification of the novel *K.lactis* **genes based on their** *S.cerevisiae* **orthologs**

Computation of the results shown in Table 2 shows that 58% of the identified *K.lactis* RSTs correspond to functionally known genes of *S.cerevisiae*, 22% to *S.cerevisiae* genes whose functions were assigned based on structural homology of their products with other species, and 20% correspond to genes of *S.cerevisiae* previously without homologs. Since our collection of RSTs represents a random sample of the *K.lactis* genome, it is interesting to examine and compare the distribution of their *S.cerevisiae* orthologs relative to the previously defined functional categories (26). Representatives of all these categories are found among the structural homologs of the *K.lactis* genes identified in this work, with no obvious bias in favour of any category (Fig. 2). As in *S.cerevisiae*, the most frequently observed *K.lactis* genes are involved in cell organization and biogenesis. Interestingly, many of the novel *K.lactis* genes discovered here correspond to functions that have been poorly studied, or not studied at all, in this organism. This is the case, for example, for genes involved in the cell cycle (SSN3, CDC37, CDC4, CDC33 and CDC53), chromosome segregation (SMC1), RNA splicing (PRP28 and

Table 2. List of the *K.lactis* RSTs having *S.cerevisiae* homologs: *K.lactis* RSTs were classified by increasing *P*-values and are indicated with their nomenclature, accession number and size (in bp). Homologous *S.cerevisiae* genes are identified by the systematic nomenclature and the corresponding gene name when available

(A) *K.lactis* RSTs having a single *S.cerevisiae* homolog

Table 2. (A) (*continued*)

Table 2. (A) (*continued*)

PRP5), nucleic acid synthesis (URA1) or amino acid metabolism (TRP5, ARG1, MET6 and LYS2). Other *K.lactis* genes identified here (such as IMP2, a putative sugar utilization regulatory protein) are novel, although belonging to a functional category well studied in this organism (45). We also discovered a *K.lactis* homolog to the alcohol dehydrogenase gene ADH4 of *S.cerevisiae* (46), bringing the total number of alcohol dehydrogenases in *K.lactis* to five, instead of four as previously thought (47). Four other RSTs were found corresponding to unknown *K.lactis* genes encoding ribosomal proteins. Two of them (am2c02d and okam3f03r) overlap *S.cerevisiae* genes containing introns. The nucleotide sequence of am2c02d corresponds to that of the *S.cerevisiae* gene YDL130w without the presence of an intron. The nucleotide sequence of okam3f02r corresponds to the 3′ parts of the *S.cerevisiae* genes YGR118w and YPR132w, and shows a high level of conservation (89 and 91% identity, respectively) with the exons of these two genes but not with the introns. However, the existence of the $5'$ and 3' splice sites and of the branchpoint (48,49) in the am2c02d sequence indicates the presence of an intron in the *K.lactis* gene at a conserved position relative to the *S.cerevisiae* gene.

New *K.lactis* **genes absent in** *S.cerevisiae*

As expected, for each *K.lactis* translation product having homologs in several organisms, the closest sequence similarity is generally observed with *S.cerevisiae*, but in a few specific cases the situation is reversed or no homolog at all is found in *S.cerevisiae*. A notable example of the latter case is the β-galactosidase gene of *K.lactis* (50) which is absent in *S.cerevisiae*.

Five *K.lactis* RST translation products have homologs in other species but not in *S.cerevisiae* (Table 3). One such case concerns a protein of the yeast *C.albicans*. The other examples are more surprising because the *K.lactis* products show a high degree of sequence conservation with distantly related species (*S.pombe*, *Aspergillus nidulans* and *Cuphea lanceolata*) but not with the *S.cerevisiae* counterparts.

'Universal', 'yeast-specific' and 'species-specific' genes

Systematic sequence comparisons of *S.cerevisiae* with all other organisms presently sequenced (Bacteria, Archea or Eucaryotes) indicate that 64% of its predicted proteins have a homolog in at least one of the other species while the remaining 36% do not. While the first category may be regarded as 'universal genes' because they are present in species of different domains of life, the latter may be hypothesized to be specific *S.cerevisiae* genes or, alternatively, be limited to its phylogenetic group, the hemiascomycetes. The present sequences of *K.lactis* genes offer a means to differentiate between these two possibilities. A total of 85 novel genes of *K.lactis* (30% of the identified RSTs) have homologs in *S.cerevisiae* that themselves had no other homolog before. Such

indicates RSTs corresponding to previously known *K.lactis* genes: *IPP1* (am1f01d), *GAL2* (okam3b01r), *TRP1* (am2c07d) and *GAL10* (okam5c11r), corresponding to EMBL accession nos X14230, X53752, X14230 and X07039, respectively.

Table 3. List of the *K.lactis* RSTs closer to proteins of other species than to *S.cerevisiae*

SWISS-PROT (release 34) (44) and laboratory database were used for comparison.

The latter is composed of 46 630 translation products of complete sequenced genomes of 10 bacteria. (8,9,11,12,14,16,18–21), three archaea (10,15,17) and 81% of the *C.elegans* genome (http://www.sanger.ac.uk/Projects/C_elegans/).

 \mathbf{n} 85 212 median value 2.010^{-16} $2.0 10^{-33}$

Figure 3. Range of BLASTX *P*-values among yeast-specific and universal genes. Best *P*-values between each *K.lactis* RST translation product and the complete set of *S.cerevisiae* proteins were listed separately in two columns: one for yeast-specific genes (yeast-specific column) and the other for functionally characterized genes or homologs to functionally characterized proteins of other organisms (universal column). Bars indicate 95% confidence limits.

genes should now be regarded as 'yeast-specific' rather than *S.cerevisiae*-specific (Discussion). Closer examination of the distribution of sequence similarities between the universal genes and the yeast-specific genes reveals an additional interesting observation (Fig. 3). Whereas *P*-value scores between *K.lactis* and *S.cerevisiae* gene products range from 6.8 × 10–5 (close to our selected limit) to 1.4×10^{-126} for genes of *S.cerevisiae* having homologs in other organisms, the same distribution only reaches 1.0 × 10–75 for genes of *S.cerevisiae* devoid of previous homologs (the median values of the two distributions are 2.0×10^{-33} and 2.0×10^{-16} , respectively). In other words, the subclass of *S.cerevisiae* genes that were previously without structural homologs show greater sequence divergence than average when compared with their *K.lactis* counterparts, suggesting that part of the yeast-specific genes correspond to sequences that diverge more rapidly than others.

Conserved gene order relationships (synteny)

As expected, the *S.cerevisiae* homologs to the *K.lactis* genes identified in this work are scattered throughout the 16 chomosomes (Fig. 4). Sequencing the two ends of inserts from clones of the long-fragment library allowed us to identify 45 cases in which two distinct neighbouring genes were present on the same insert (90 genes in total), and hence to examine the synteny between the two genomes. We found that 42 genes have the same neighbour in the two species (24 pairs) whereas 48 genes do not. In one case (the gene pair Kl-YNL308c and Kl-YNL312w), a short local inversion explains the difference between the two species, bringing the general synteny to ∼50% of the cases examined (44/90). In all other cases, the two genes that are neighbours in *K.lactis* are separated in *S.cerevisiae*. Interestingly, in seven cases the two neighbouring genes in *K.lactis* have two homologs, each located in one of the two regions believed to represent an ancient chromosomal duplication in *S.cerevisiae* (26,51).

DISCUSSION

In this work, a random collection of *K.lactis* short genomic sequences was constituted to enable comparisons between the genome of this yeast and that of *S.cerevisiae*. Beside the discovery and identification of novel *K.lactis* genes, this work was primarily aimed at examining the conservation, loss or divergence of the various classes of *S.cerevisiae* genes, and in particular the most intriguing one, the orphans. It was, therefore, essential that the collection of sequences determined represent a random sample of the *K.lactis* genome. The randomness of our libraries can be estimated from the fact that only seven RSTs were found to partially overlap one another, a figure which is almost exactly as expected considering the fact that the 658 RSTs cover 1.3% of the *K.lactis* genome. Randomness of our *K.lactis* RSTs is also supported by the scattered distribution of the homologs in the *S.cerevisiae* map (Fig. 4).

Exploration of a novel genome by RSTs is a quick and efficient procedure, provided a closely related organism whose genome has been entirely sequenced is available to serve as a reference. At the beginning of such a project, the number of genes identified exceeds the fraction of the genome covered [here, 296 new *K.lactis* genes (5% of the genes) were identified by sequencing only 1.3% of the genome]. Assuming that gene size distribution and gene density are similar in *K.lactis* and *S.cerevisiae* (all our results support this idea), only 5–6000 RSTs of ∼300 nucleotides, representing 15% of the genome, would allow the identification of nearly half of all *K.lactis* genes. Longer sequences would obviously increase this number as well as the number of sequences that are identifiable. The drawback of RSTs compared with systematic genome sequencing is, of course, that only parts of the gene sequences are available and that the quality of the sequence is that of single reads, but the information obtained can be rapidly used for functional studies by setting up hybridization matrices, for example.

Compared with the 85 genes identified previously (29), this work more than tripled the number of *K.lactis* genes identified at the molecular level. But more importantly, it shows that the previous set of *K.lactis* genes, essentially isolated by functional complementation of *S.cerevisiae* mutants or by heterologous hybridization, was partially biased in favour of the most conserved genes, while that actual sequence divergence between

the two yeast species is more heterogeneous than previously thought (the mean amino acid identity with *S.cerevisiae* for the 85 previously identified *K.lactis* genes was 83.5% with a standard deviation of 19.1%, compared with a mean of 63.6% with a standard deviation of 49.7% for the present set of random sequences).

In this work, *K.lactis* genes were identified solely on the basis of sequence similarity without experimental data concerning their actual functions. Genes were therefore classified as orthologs on the basis of structural relationships. Yet the high levels of similarity observed in a number of cases makes the functional conservation between the two species a tempting hypothesis (Table 2). In other cases, however, prediction of function is less reliable, especially when the function of the *S.cerevisiae* homolog is itself only tentative.

The very existence of *K.lactis* homologs to *S.cerevisiae* orphan genes confirms that such genes are actual functional genes that have previously remained without homologs because no other yeast sequence was available. However, their under-representation in our RSTs (85 were found when 107 were predicted) suggests that a fraction of the orphan *S.cerevisiae* genes will remain orphans even if the genome of *K.lactis* was entirely sequenced. This may be partly due to the fact that the degree of sequence conservation between translated products of yeast-specific genes is generally lower than the average sequence conservation (Fig. 3), hence lowering the number of recognizable matches in this category. Using the same rationale and the same limit of significance as for *K.lactis* (Materials and Methods), we found similar results for the recently released set of ∼25 000 genomic short sequences of the pathogenic yeast *C.albicans* (http://www. candida.stanford.edu). In this yeast, believed to be less closely related to *S.cerevisiae* than *K.lactis* (28), the proportion of sequences giving a significant match with *S.cerevisiae* translation products is only of the order of 30% compared with ∼55% for *K.lactis*. Yet, as for *K.lactis*, the average degree of similarity of level of *C.albicans* sequences with *S.cerevisiae* is lower for the yeast-specific genes than for universal genes. A lower sequence conservation between genes of unknown functions, as compared with the functionally assigned genes, has also been observed for the two related bacterial species *Mycoplasma pneunoniae* and *Mycoplasma genitalium* (22).

The fact that some gene sequences may diverge more quickly than others during evolution is not new (52), but the lower sequence conservation in genes of unknown function may indicate a lower functional constraint on them, or a higher flexibility of primary sequences to sustain function. In any case, orphan genes of *S.cerevisiae* that now have homologs in another yeast species should no longer be regarded as orphans, and their existence in *K.lactis* may help identify their function. Perhaps a number of such genes are specific to the *Saccharomyces*–*Kluyveromyces* lineages, or to the ascomycetous yeasts at large, or even to the fungal kingdom.

The degree of synteny between related species is a most important parameter to consider for genome evolution, as it

emphasizes divergence created at the chromosome level rather than at the gene sequence level. Prior to this work, synteny between *K.lactis* and *S.cerevisiae* was estimated for only a few clusters of two and three genes (53). Nearly all of the genes located inside those clusters were found contiguous in the two species. Our present results, including 90 genes, indicate an average synteny of ∼50% (Fig. 4), a figure comparable with that calculated in a recent work from the more limited number of publicly available sequences (54). Beside the practical benefit that can be derived from the consideration that the neighbours of our *K.lactis* genes can be predicted with 50% confidence from the genome of *S.cerevisiae*, the observed synteny facilitates interpretation of some aspects of the evolutionary history of the *Kluyveromyces* genus, which remains poorly characterized. The chromosome rearrangements that led to non-synteny must have occurred after the separation of the *Saccharomyces* and *Kluyveromyces* lineages or, alternatively, duplication of chromosomal domains followed by random loss of genes may have taken place. This latter hypothesis has recently been clearly stated (54). We observed cases here in which two neighbouring genes in *K.lactis* do indeed find their homologs in duplicated chromosome blocks in *S.cerevisiae*, but we also observed cases of neighbouring *K.lactis* genes having their homologs dispersed in *S.cerevisiae* and falling outside of duplicated chromosome blocks.

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Figure 4. (Opposite) Map location of *S.cerevisiae* orthologs to *K.lactis* RSTs and synteny between the two yeast species. Map of the 16 *S.cerevisiae* chromosomes, classified by decreasing size order from right to left (top) and from left to right (bottom), with indication of the homologs to *K.lactis* RSTs. Boxes indicate pairs of genes that remain neighbours in the two species. Pairs of neighbouring genes in *K.lactis* and dispersed in *S.cerevisiae* (in italics and underlined) have been arbitrarily numbered. Diamonds indicate pairs corresponding to two genes which are located in duplicated chromosomal regions [numbered as by Wolfe and Shields (51); only those duplicated regions where pairs were found are indicated on the present map]. Circles indicate pairs composed of one or two genes outside of such duplications.

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